

# Elements of Bioinformatics

## Autumn 2011



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582606/2011/s/k/1](http://www.cs.helsinki.fi/courses/582606/2011/s/k/1)

# Lecture Mon 31.10.



**GENE PREDICTION**

# Molecular biology concepts recap

## Nucleotides A, C, G, T

DNA

...TACCTACATCCACTCATC...AGCTACGTTCCCCGACTACGACATGGTGATT  
5' ...ATGGATGTAGGTGAGTAG...TCGATGCAAGGGGCTGATGCTGTACCACTAA... 3'

## exon

## intron

## exon

RNA

...AUGGAUGUAGAUGGGCUGAUGCUGUACCAUCUA

## transcription

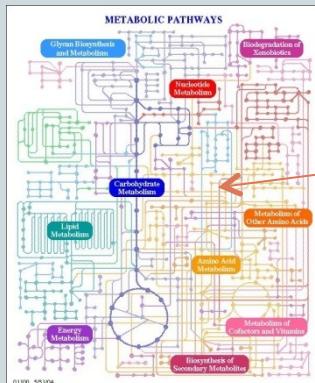
## regulation

# Protein

## translation

## regulation

entsyme



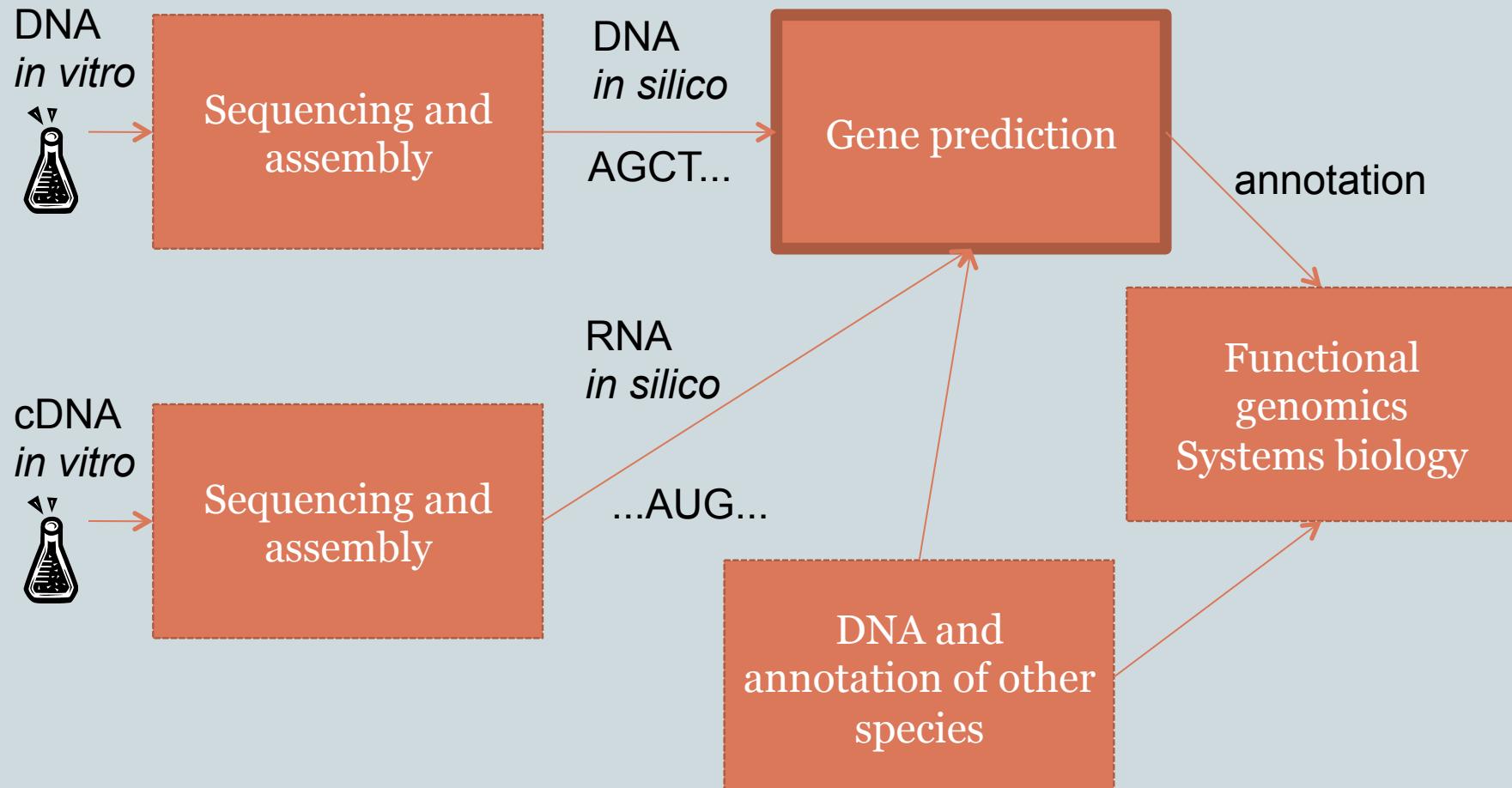
## recombination

## Mother DNA

## Father DNA

Daughter DNA C C C A

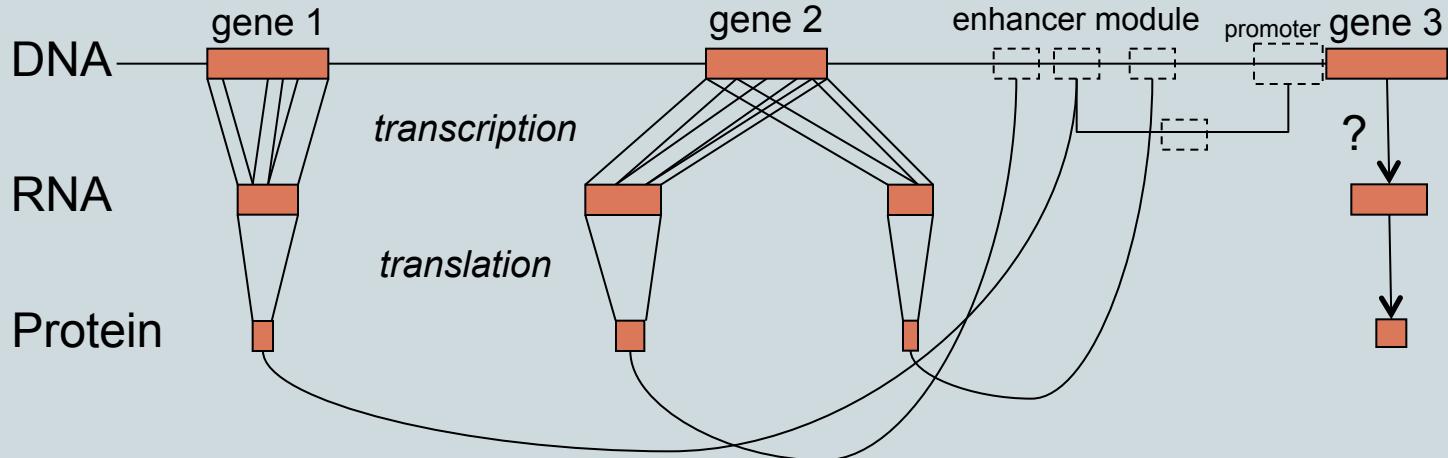
# Genome analysis pipeline



# Gene structure



- Genes
  - start and stop codons
  - exons, introns (in eukaryotic organisms)
- Promoter regions
  - binding sites for regulatory proteins



# Typical eukaryotic gene

- ATG –start codon, TAA –stop codon
  - yellow: exons, blue: introns, red: untranslated region
  - black: upstream (promoter) and downstream regions

<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:AMY1gene.png>

# Gene prediction: main approaches



- Evidence-based gene finding: identify mRNA sequences expressed by the organism and map them back to the genome
- Ab initio gene prediction: detecting the 'signal' of functional elements via statistical approaches or matching against a database of known motifs
- Comparative genomics approaches: detect conserved DNA regions by comparing a large set of related genomes

# Evidence-based gene finding

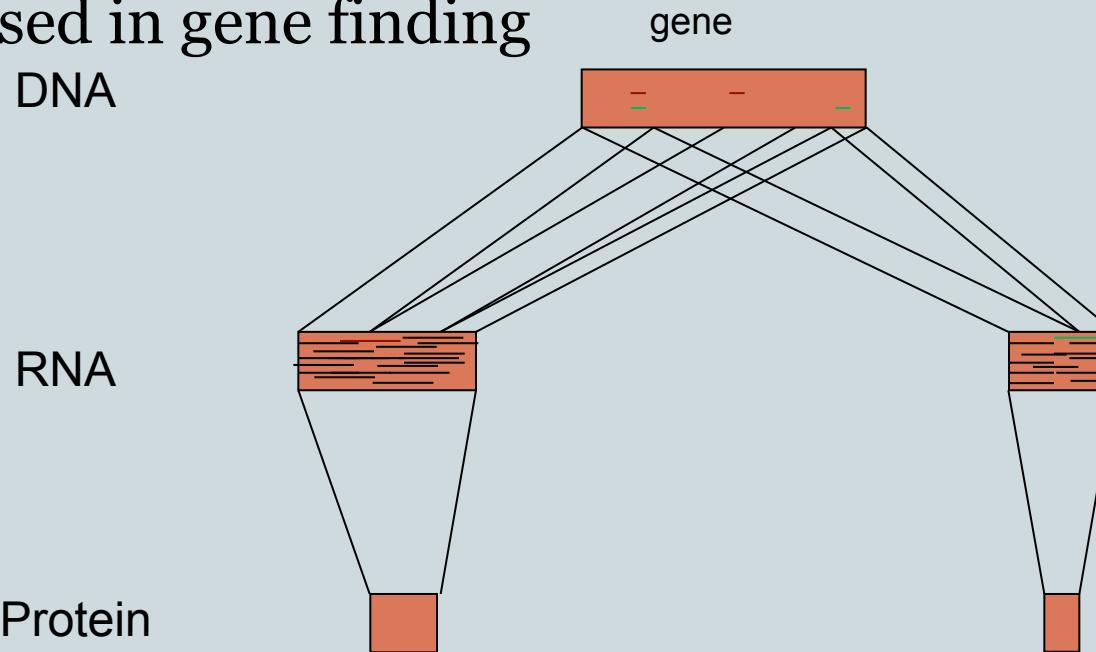


- In evidence-based gene finding, one assumes that there is access to mRNA or protein sequences expressed by the organism
  - RNA-seq is one suitable experimental technique for mRNA
  - Peptide sequencing via tandem mass spectrometry gives amino acid sequences
- Target genome is searched for sequences that match the expressed mRNA or protein sequences
  - Sequence alignment problem using, e.g. BLAST
  - For prokaryotic genes, relatively straight-forwards
  - Exon-intron structure of eukaryotic genes is a complication

# RNA-seq for Gene finding



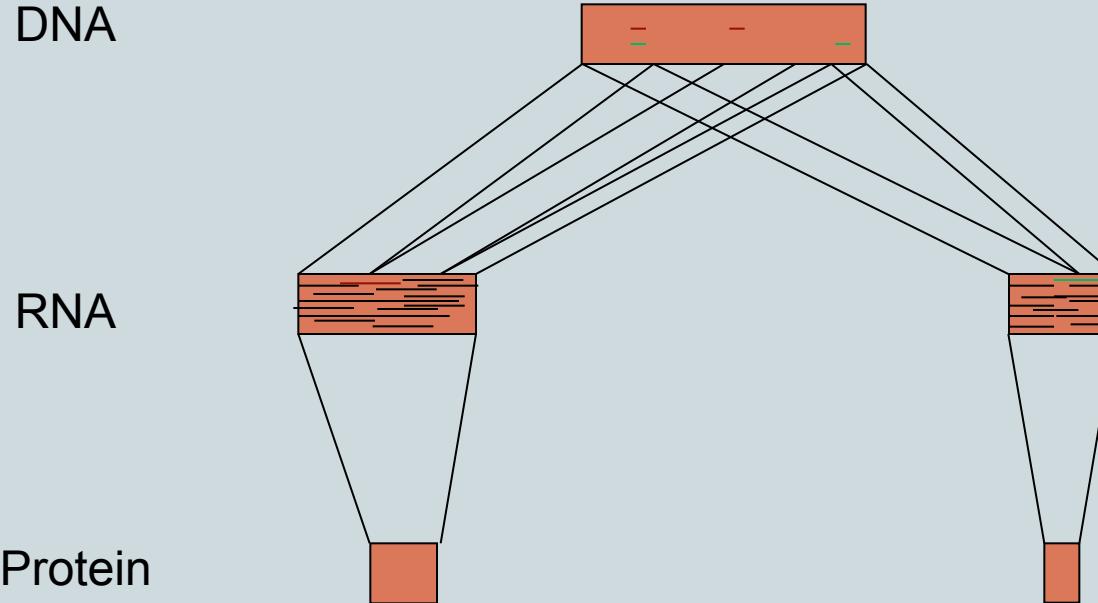
- RNA-seq is a short-read sequencing technology to measure the transcriptome, i.e. all expressed mRNA in a given sample
- Mainly used to study the function of genes, but can also be used in gene finding



# RNA-seq for gene finding

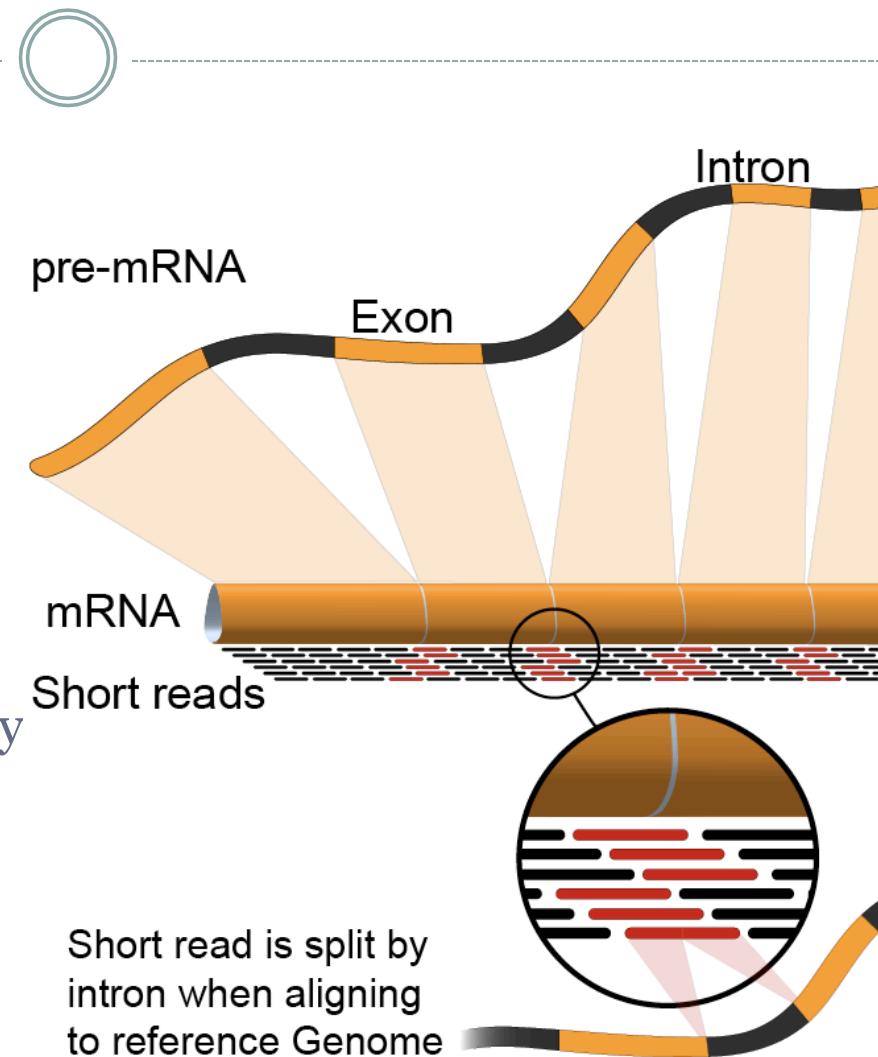


- Two alternative approaches:
  - Assemble mRNA from short reads and match the mRNA transcript to the genome (taking introns into account)
  - Align the short reads of cDNA directly to the genome and vote for exons.



# Eukaryotic Gene finding with RNA-seq data

- Consider the first approach: matching the RNA-seq reads to the target genome
- Some reads may cross exon-exon boundary
  - In the target genome these read sequence will be split by an intron
  - Generally we may not know where the exon-exon boundaries are
- Exercises: discover solutions to this problem



# Eukaryotic Gene finding with known protein sequences

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- Consider matching known protein sequence to the target genome
- As only exons are translated, when matching the protein sequence into the target genome, one needs to consider where the introns might be located
- With dynamic programming one compute a score matrix  $S$ , so that  $S[i,j,k]$  gives the maximum score of exons in  $dna[1\dots j]$  translating into  $protein[1\dots i]$  with  $k$  introns
- Exercises: details of the method

# Gene finding example

...ATGACATATGTAAATGGTAGCTACGTACGATCGAGGTAGCAGGCCTATTAA...

MTYVNGSYAY

match score = 1  
mismatch score = 0  
indel score = -∞

$$\begin{aligned} S[i,j,0] &= -\infty \\ S[i,j,1] &= 10 \end{aligned}$$

(exercise develops the recursion)



...ATGACATATGTAAATGGTAGCTACgtacgatcgaggtacgcagGCCTATTAA...

M T Y V N G S Y

A Y

*sliding window maxima technique:*

$$\underbrace{3,5,\mathbf{6},2,3,4}_{\max = 6}, 7 \quad \longrightarrow \quad \underbrace{3,5,6,2,3,4}_{\max = 7}, \mathbf{7}$$

Enough to store  
**right-most maxima**:  $(i, A[i])$  such  
that there is no  $A[j] > A[i]$ , for indices  
 $i < j$  inside the sliding window.

# Evidence-based gene finding



- Major limitations of evidence-based approach is coverage
  - mRNA approach:
    - Not all genes are expressed all the time or all tissues, so mRNA will not in general cover the all genes
  - Known protein approach:
    - Not all proteins have been sequenced, corresponding genes would be missed
    - What if the target genome contains previously unknown genes?
- For larger coverage, need ab initio tools that do not require observing the gene products

# Ab initio gene prediction



- What can be deduced from just the genome content?
- Introns often have markers at both ends (gt...ag,...), but these markers also appear in other places.
- Statistical properties need to be used to distinguish between coding and non-coding regions.
- Already non-trivial for prokaryotes as not all start codon – stop codon pairs (*open reading frames*, ORFs) correspond to genes.
- Hidden Markov Model (HMM) –techniques can be used for this prediction task. (next lecture)

# Biological words: k-mer statistics



- To understand statistical approaches to gene prediction, we need to study what is known about the structure and statistics of DNA.
  - 1-mers: individual nucleotides (bases)
  - 2-mers: dinucleotides (AA, AC, AG, AT, CA, ...)
  - 3-mers: codons (AAA, AAC, ...)
  - 4-mers and beyond

# 1-mers: base composition



- Typically DNA exists as *duplex* molecule (two complementary strands)

5' -GGATCGAAGCTAAGGGCT- 3'  
3' -CCTAGCTTCGATTCCCGA- 5'

Top strand: 7 G, 3 C, 5 A, 3 T

Bottom strand: 3 G, 7 C, 3 A, 5 T

Duplex molecule: 10 G, 10 C, 8 A, 8 T

Base frequencies: 10/36 10/36 8/36 8/36

$$\text{fr}(G + C) = 20/36, \text{fr}(A + T) = 1 - \text{fr}(G + C) = 16/36$$

These are something we can determine experimentally.



# G+C content



- $\text{fr}(G + C)$ , or *G+C content* is a simple statistics for describing genomes
- Notice that one value is enough to characterise  $\text{fr}(A)$ ,  $\text{fr}(C)$ ,  $\text{fr}(G)$  and  $\text{fr}(T)$  for duplex DNA
- Is G+C content (= base composition) able to tell the difference between genomes of different organisms?
- Is G+C content able to tell the difference between coding and non-coding regions?

# G+C content and genome sizes (in megabasepairs, Mb) for various organisms



• <i>Mycoplasma genitalium</i>	31.6%	0.585
• <i>Escherichia coli K-12</i>	50.7%	4.693
• <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa PAO1</i>	66.4%	6.264
• <i>Pyrococcus abyssi</i>	44.6%	1.765
• <i>Thermoplasma volcanium</i>	39.9%	1.585
• <i>Caenorhabditis elegans</i>	36%	97
• <i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	35%	125
• <i>Homo sapiens</i>	41%	3080

# Base frequencies in duplex molecules



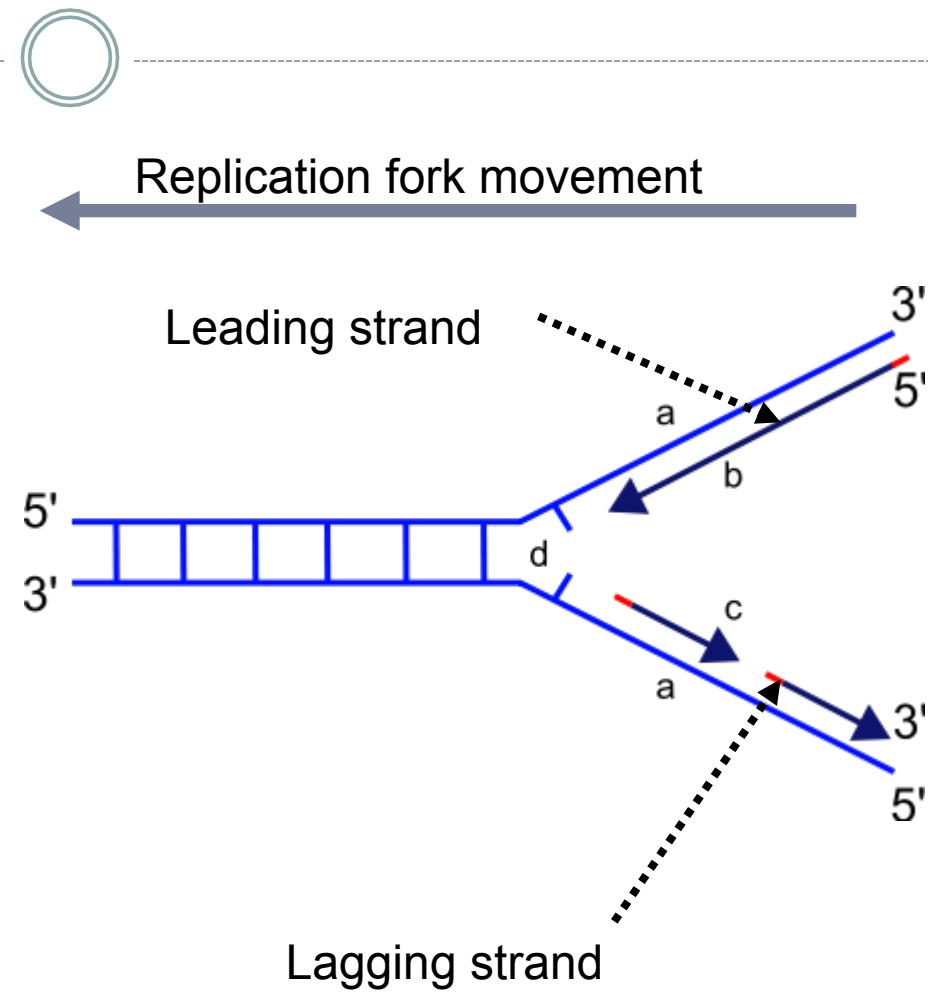
- Consider a DNA sequence generated randomly, with probability of each letter being independent of position in sequence
- You could expect to find a uniform distribution of bases in genomes...



- This is not, however, the case in genomes, especially in prokaryotes
  - This phenomena is called *GC skew*

# DNA replication fork

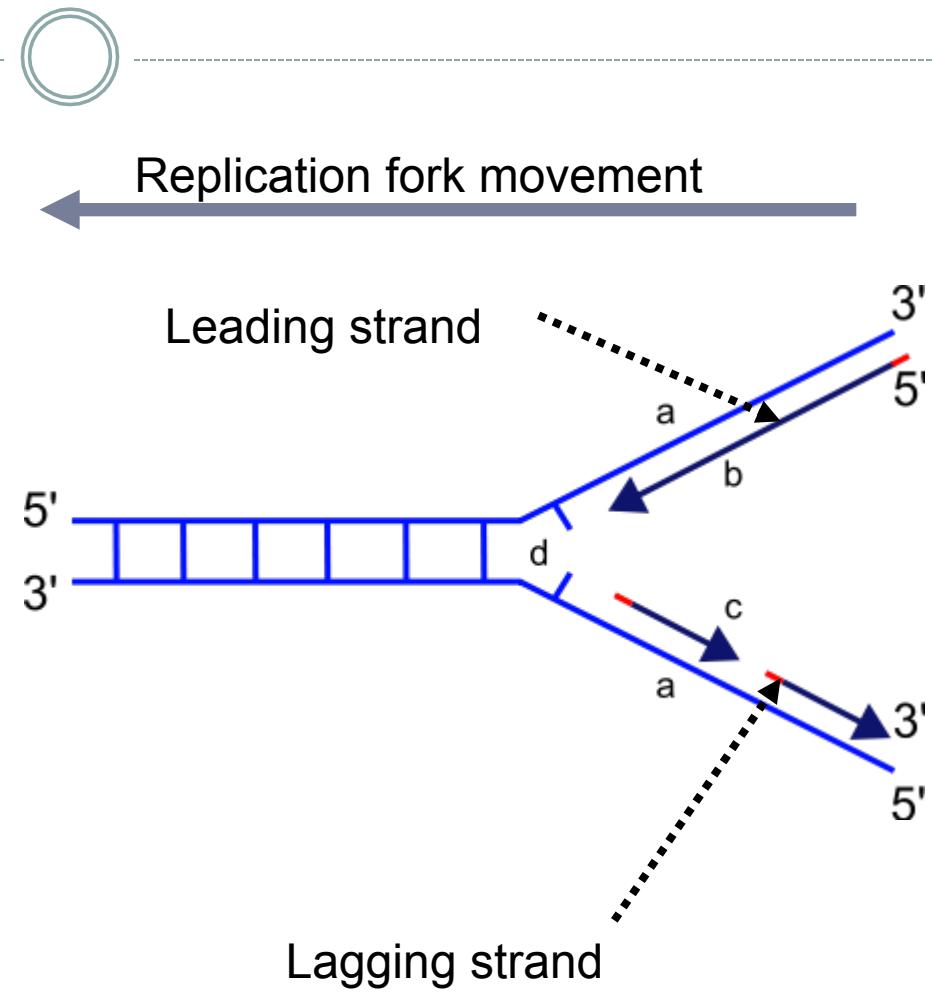
- When DNA is replicated, the molecule takes the *replication fork* form
- New complementary DNA is synthesised at both strands of the "fork"
- New strand in 5'-3' direction corresponding to replication fork movement is called *leading strand* and the other *lagging strand*



Replication fork

# DNA replication fork

- This process has specific starting points in genome (*origins of replication*)
- Observation: Leading strands have an excess of G over C
- This can be described by *GC skew* statistics

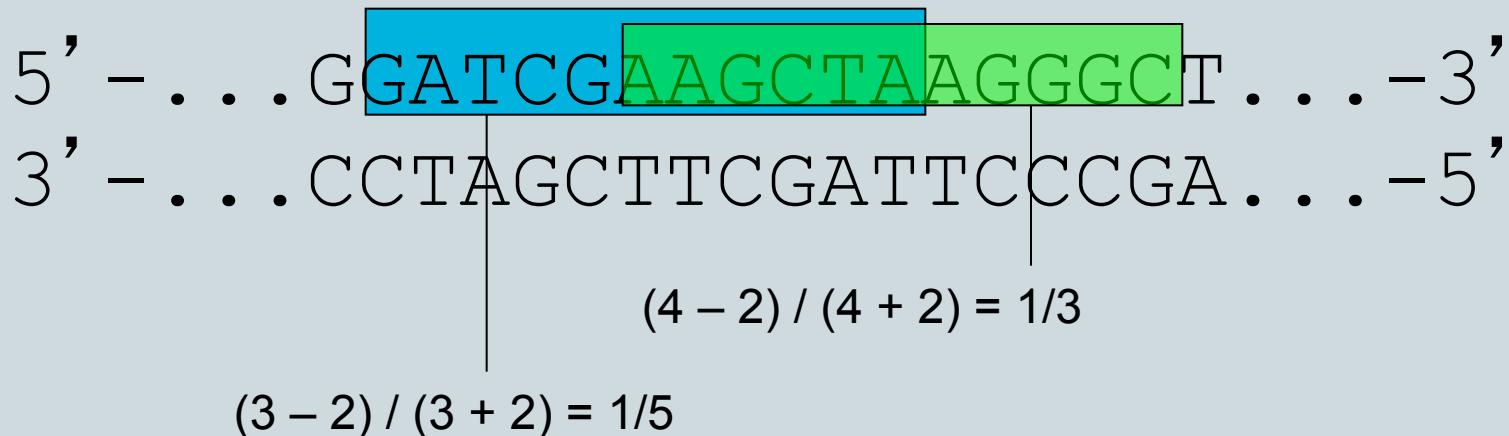


Replication fork

# GC skew



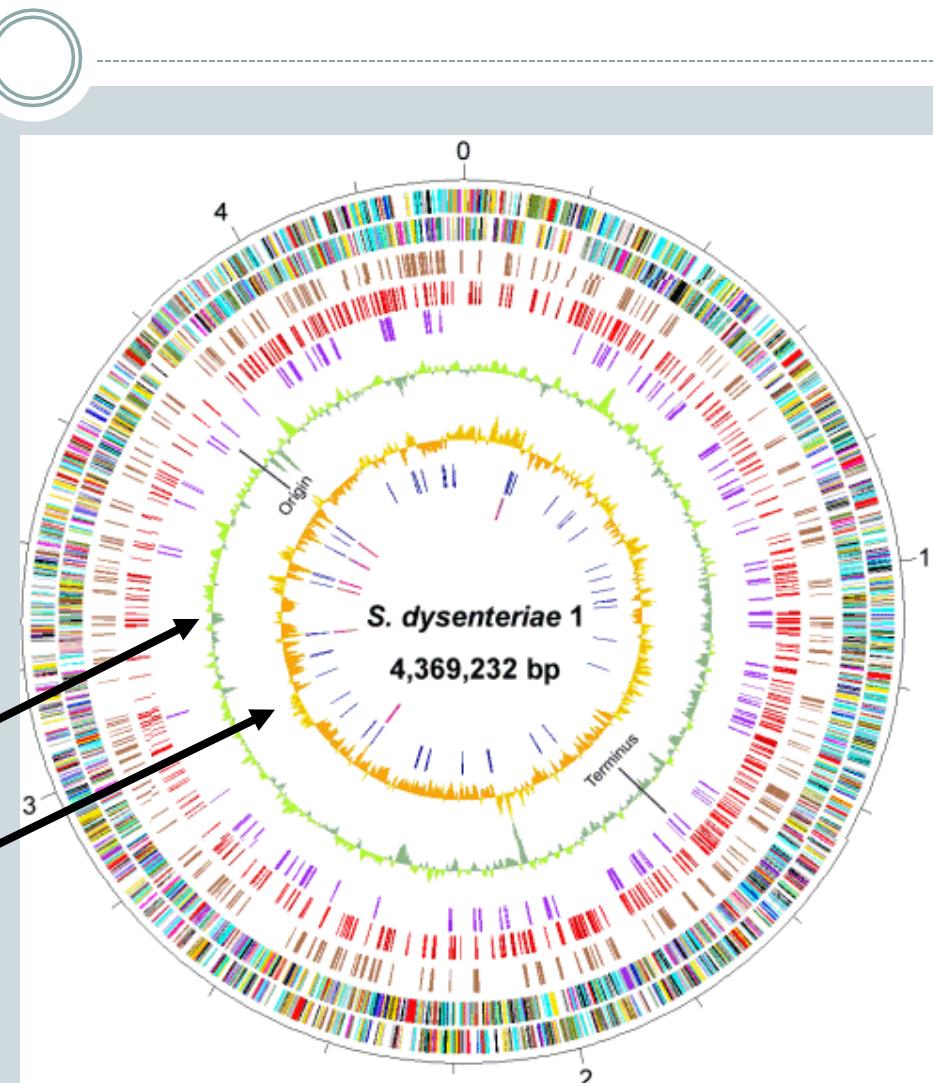
- GC skew is defined as  $(\#G - \#C) / (\#G + \#C)$
- It is calculated at successive positions in intervals (windows) of specific width



# G-C content & GC skew

- G-C content & GC skew statistics can be displayed with a *circular genome map*

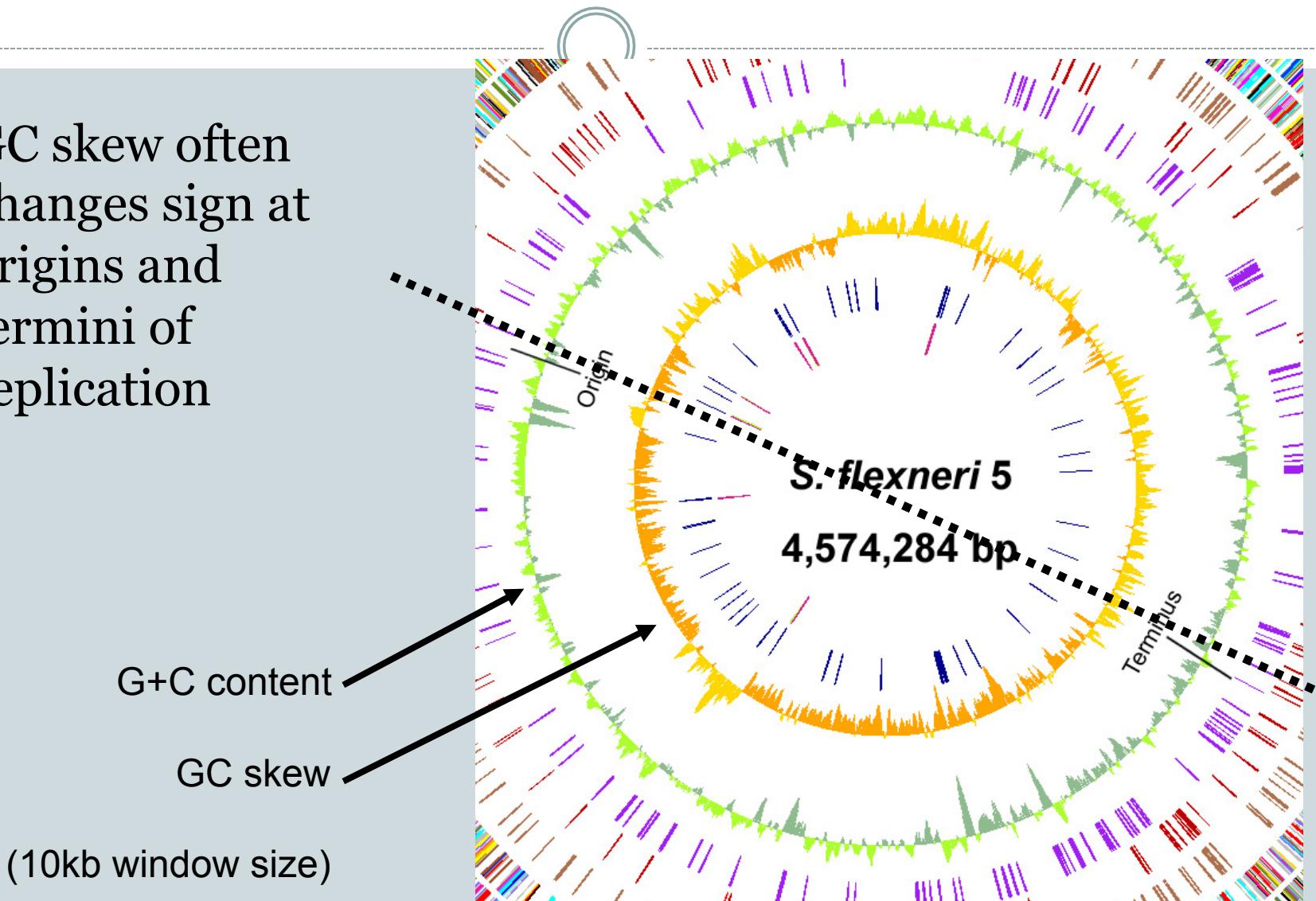
G+C content  
GC skew  
(10kb window size)



Chromosome map of *S. dysenteriae*, the nine rings describe different properties of the genome [http://www.mgc.ac.cn/ShiBASE/circular\\_Sd197.htm](http://www.mgc.ac.cn/ShiBASE/circular_Sd197.htm)

# GC skew

- GC skew often changes sign at origins and termini of replication



# i.i.d. model for nucleotides



- Assume that bases
  - occur independently of each other
  - bases at each position are identically distributed
- Probability of the base A, C, G, T occurring is  $p_A$ ,  $p_C$ ,  $p_G$ ,  $p_T$ , respectively
  - For example, we could use  $p_A=p_C=p_G=p_T=0.25$  or estimate the values from known genome data
- Joint probability is then just the product of independent variables
  - For example,  $P(TG) = p_T p_G$

# Refining the i.i.d. model

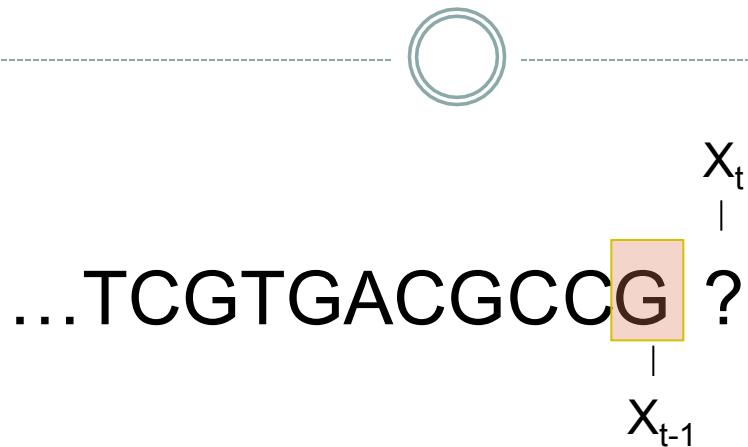


- i.i.d. model describes some organisms well but fails to characterise many others
- We can refine the model by having the DNA letter at some position depend on letters at preceding positions

...TCGTGAC**GCCG?**

Sequence context to consider

# First-order Markov chains



- Let's assume that in sequence  $X$  the letter at position  $t$ ,  $X_t$ , depends only on the previous letter  $X_{t-1}$  (*first-order markov chain*)
- Probability of letter  $b$  occurring at position  $t$  given  $X_{t-1} = a$ :  
 $p_{ab} = P(X_t = b | X_{t-1} = a)$
- We consider *homogeneous* markov chains: probability  $p_{ab}$  is independent of position  $t$

# Estimating $p_{ab}$



- We can estimate probabilities  $p_{ab}$  ("the probability that b follows a") from observed dinucleotide frequencies

	A	C	G	T
A	$p_{AA}$	$p_{AC}$	$p_{AG}$	$p_{AT}$
C	$p_{CA} + p_{CC} + p_{CG} + p_{CT}$			
G	$p_{GA}$	$p_{GC}$	$p_{GG}$	$p_{GT}$
T	$p_{TA}$	$p_{TC}$	$p_{TG}$	$p_{TT}$

Frequency of dinucleotide AT in sequence

Base frequency  $fr(C)$

...the values  $p_{AA}, p_{AC}, \dots, p_{TG}, p_{TT}$  sum to 1

# Estimating $p_{ab}$



- $$p_{ab} = P(X_t = b \mid X_{t-1} = a) = \frac{P(X_t = b, X_{t-1} = a)}{P(X_{t-1} = a)}$$

Probability of transition  $a \rightarrow b$

Dinucleotide frequency  
Base frequency of nucleotide  $a$ ,  
 $fr(a)$

	A	C	G	T
A	0.146	0.052	0.058	0.089
C	0.063	0.029	0.010	0.056
G	0.050	0.030	0.028	0.051
T	0.086	0.047	0.063	0.140

$P(X_t = b, X_{t-1} = a)$

	A	C	G	T
A	0.423	0.151	0.168	0.258
C	0.399	0.184	0.063	0.354
G	0.314	0.189	0.176	0.321
T	0.258	0.138	0.187	0.415

$P(X_t = b \mid X_{t-1} = a)$

# Simulating a DNA sequence



- From a transition matrix, it is easy to generate a DNA sequence of length n:
  - First, choose the starting base randomly according to the base frequency distribution
  - Then, choose next base according to the distribution  $P(x_t | x_{t-1})$  until n bases have been chosen

T T C T T C A A

	A	C	G	T
A	0.423	0.151	0.168	0.258
C	0.399	0.184	0.063	0.354
G	0.314	0.189	0.176	0.321
T	0.258	0.138	0.187	0.415

$$P(X_t = b | X_{t-1} = a)$$

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
```

```
import sys, random
```

```
n = int(sys.argv[1])
```

```
tm = {'a': {'a': 0.423, 'c': 0.151, 'g': 0.168, 't': 0.258},  
      'c': {'a': 0.399, 'c': 0.184, 'g': 0.063, 't': 0.354},  
      'g': {'a': 0.314, 'c': 0.189, 'g': 0.176, 't': 0.321},  
      't': {'a': 0.258, 'c': 0.138, 'g': 0.187, 't': 0.415}}
```

```
pi = {'a': 0.345, 'c': 0.158, 'g': 0.159, 't': 0.337}
```

```
def choose(dist):  
    r = random.random()  
    sum = 0.0  
    keys = dist.keys()  
    for k in keys:  
        sum += dist[k]  
        if sum > r:  
            return k  
    return keys[-1]
```

```
c = choose(pi)  
for i in range(n - 1):  
    sys.stdout.write(c)  
    c = choose(tm[c])  
    sys.stdout.write(c)  
    sys.stdout.write("\n")
```

Example Python code for generating DNA sequences with first-order Markov chains.

} Initialisation: use packages 'sys' and 'random' , read sequence length from input.

} Transition matrix tm and initial distribution pi.

} Function choose(), returns a key (here 'a' , 'c' , 'g' or 't' ) of the dictionary 'dist' chosen randomly according to probabilities in dictionary values.

} Choose the first letter, then choose next letter according to  $P(x_t | x_{t-1})$ .

# Simulating a DNA sequence

- Now we can quickly generate sequences of arbitrary length...

# Simulating a DNA sequence

## Dinucleotide frequencies

	Simulated	Observed
aa	0.145	0.146
ac	0.050	0.052
ag	0.055	0.058
at	0.092	0.089
ca	0.065	0.063
cc	0.028	0.029
cg	0.011	0.010
ct	0.058	0.056
ga	0.048	0.050
gc	0.032	0.030
gg	0.029	0.028
gt	0.050	0.051
ta	0.084	0.086
tc	0.052	0.047
tg	0.064	0.063
tt	0.138	0.0140

	Simulated	Observed
aa	0.145	0.146
ac	0.050	0.052
ag	0.055	0.058
at	0.092	0.089
ca	0.065	0.063
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gg	0.029	0.028
gt	0.050	0.051
ta	0.084	0.086
tc	0.052	0.047
tg	0.064	0.063
tt	0.138	0.0140

$n = 10000$

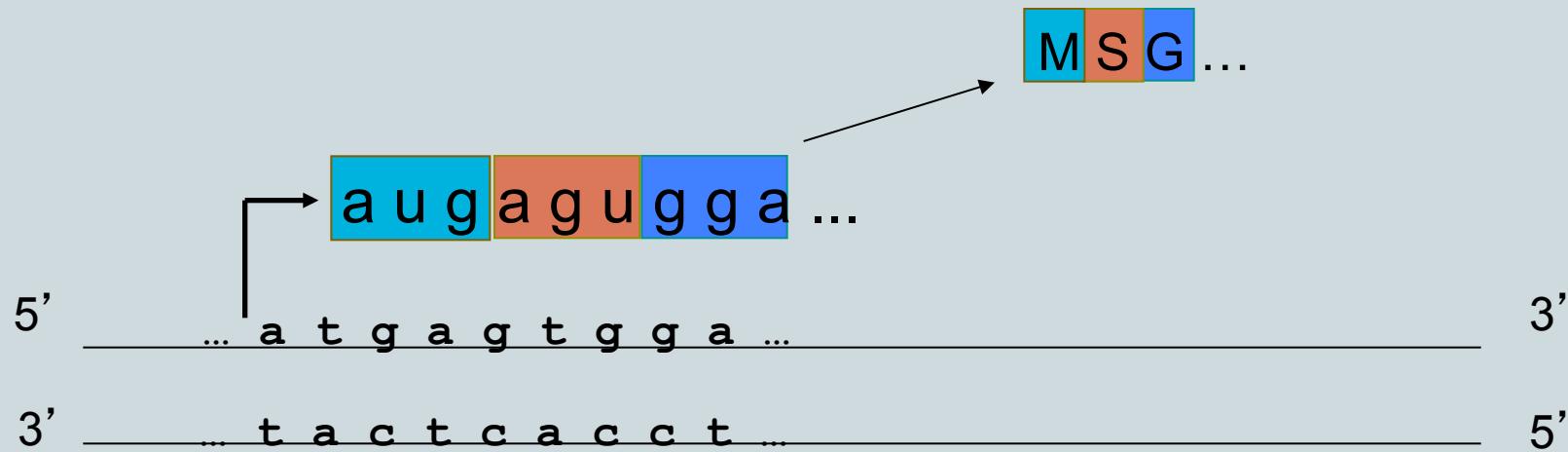
# Simulating a DNA sequence

- The model is able to generate correct proportions of 1- and 2-mers in genomes...
  - ...but fails with  $k=3$  and beyond.

# 3-mers: codons



- We can extend the previous method to 3-mers
- $k=3$  is an important case in study of DNA sequences because of genetic code



# 3-mers in Escherichia coli genome

Word	Count	Observed	Expected	Word	Count	Observed	Expected
AAA	108924	0.02348	0.01492	CAA	76614	0.01651	0.01541
AAC	82582	0.01780	0.01541	CAC	66751	0.01439	0.01591
AAG	63369	0.01366	0.01537	CAG	104799	0.02259	0.01588
AAT	82995	0.01789	0.01490	CAT	76985	0.01659	0.01539
ACA	58637	0.01264	0.01541	CCA	86436	0.01863	0.01591
ACC	74897	0.01614	0.01591	CCC	47775	0.01030	0.01643
ACG	73263	0.01579	0.01588	CCG	87036	0.01876	0.01640
ACT	49865	0.01075	0.01539	CCT	50426	0.01087	0.01589
AGA	56621	0.01220	0.01537	CGA	70938	0.01529	0.01588
AGC	80860	0.01743	0.01588	CGC	115695	0.02494	0.01640
AGG	50624	0.01091	0.01584	CGG	86877	0.01872	0.01636
AGT	49772	0.01073	0.01536	CGT	73160	0.01577	0.01586
ATA	63697	0.01373	0.01490	CTA	26764	0.00577	0.01539
ATC	86486	0.01864	0.01539	CTC	42733	0.00921	0.01589
ATG	76238	0.01643	0.01536	CTG	102909	0.02218	0.01586
ATT	83398	0.01797	0.01489	CTT	63655	0.01372	0.01537

# 3-mers in Escherichia coli genome

Word	Count	Observed	Expected	Word	Count	Observed	Expected
GAA	83494	0.01800	0.01537	TAA	68838	0.01484	0.01490
GAC	54737	0.01180	0.01588	TAC	52592	0.01134	0.01539
GAG	42465	0.00915	0.01584	TAG	27243	<b>0.00587</b>	<b>0.01536</b>
GAT	86551	0.01865	0.01536	TAT	63288	0.01364	0.01489
GCA	96028	0.02070	0.01588	TCA	84048	0.01812	0.01539
GCC	92973	0.02004	0.01640	TCC	56028	0.01208	0.01589
GCG	114632	<b>0.02471</b>	<b>0.01636</b>	TCG	71739	0.01546	0.01586
GCT	80298	0.01731	0.01586	TCT	55472	0.01196	0.01537
GGA	56197	0.01211	0.01584	TGA	83491	0.01800	0.01536
GGC	92144	0.01986	0.01636	TGC	95232	0.02053	0.01586
GGG	47495	0.01024	0.01632	TGG	85141	0.01835	0.01582
GGT	74301	0.01601	0.01582	TGT	58375	0.01258	0.01534
GTA	52672	0.01135	0.01536	TTA	68828	0.01483	0.01489
GTC	54221	0.01169	0.01586	TTC	83848	0.01807	0.01537
GTG	66117	0.01425	0.01582	TTG	76975	0.01659	0.01534
GTT	82598	0.01780	0.01534	TTT	109831	0.02367	0.01487

# 2nd order Markov Chains



- Markov chains readily generalise to higher orders
- In 2nd order markov chain, position t depends on positions t-1 and t-2
- Transition matrix:

	A	C	G	T
AA				
AC				
AG				
AT				
CA				
...				

# Codon Adaptation Index (CAI)

- Observation: cells prefer certain codons over others in highly expressed genes
  - Gene expression: DNA is transcribed into RNA (and possibly translated into protein)

Amino acid	Codon	Predicted	Gene class I	Gene class II	
Phe	TTT	0.493	0.551	0.291	Moderately expressed
	TTC	0.507	0.449	0.709	
Ala	GCT	0.246	0.145	0.275	Highly expressed
	GCC	0.254	0.276	0.164	
Asn	GCA	0.246	0.196	0.240	
	GCG	0.254	0.382	0.323	
Asn	AAT	0.493	0.409	0.172	
	AAC	0.507	0.591	0.828	

Codon frequencies for some genes in E. coli

# Codon Adaptation Index (CAI)



- Consider an amino acid sequence  $X = x_1x_2\dots x_n$
- Let  $p_k$  be the probability that codon  $k$  is used in highly expressed genes
- Let  $q_k$  be the highest probability that a codon coding for the same amino acid as codon  $k$  has
  - For example, if codon  $k$  is "GCC", the corresponding amino acid is Alanine (see genetic code table; also GCT, GCA, GCG code for Alanine)
  - Assume that  $p_{GCC} = 0.164$ ,  $p_{GCT} = 0.275$ ,  $p_{GCA} = 0.240$ ,  $p_{GCG} = 0.323$
  - Now  $q_{GCC} = q_{GCT} = q_{GCA} = q_{GCG} = 0.323$

# Codon Adaptation Index (CAI)



- CAI is defined as

$$\text{CAI} = \left( \prod_{k=1}^n p_k / q_k \right)^{1/n}$$

- CAI can be given also in *log-odds* form:

$$\log(\text{CAI}) = (1/n) \sum_{k=1}^n \log(p_k / q_k)$$

# CAI: example with an E. coli gene

$q_k$

$p_k$

M	A	L	T	K	A	E	M	S	E	Y	L	...
ATG	GCG	CTT	ACA	AAA	GCT	GAA	ATG	TCA	GAA	TAT	CTG	
<b>1.00</b>	<b>0.47</b>	0.02	0.45	<b>0.80</b>	<b>0.47</b>	<b>0.79</b>	<b>1.00</b>	<b>0.43</b>	<b>0.79</b>	0.19	0.02	
0.06	0.02	<b>0.47</b>	0.20	0.06	0.21			0.32	0.21	<b>0.81</b>	0.02	
0.28	<b>0.04</b>	<b>0.04</b>		0.28				<b>0.03</b>			0.04	
<b>0.20</b>	0.03	0.05		0.20				0.01			0.03	
0.01								0.04			0.01	
<b>0.89</b>								0.18			<b>0.89</b>	
<b>ATG</b>	<b>GCT</b>	TTA	ACT	<b>AAA</b>	<b>GCT</b>	<b>GAA</b>	<b>ATG</b>	<b>TCT</b>	<b>GAA</b>	TAT	TTA	
GCC	TTG	<b>ACC</b>	AAG	GCC	GAG			TCC	GAG	<b>TAC</b>	TTG	
GCA	CTT	ACA		GCA				TCA			CTT	
GCG	CTC	ACG		GCG				TCG			CTC	
CTA								AGT			CTA	
<b>CTG</b>								AGC			<b>CTG</b>	$\frac{1}{n}$
1.00	0.20	0.04	0.04	0.80	0.47	0.79	1.00	0.03	0.79	0.19	0.89	...
1.00	0.47	0.89	0.47	0.80	0.47	0.79	1.00	0.43	0.79	0.81	0.89	

# CAI: properties



- CAI = 1.0 : each codon was the most frequently used codon in highly expressed genes
- Log-odds used to avoid numerical problems
  - What happens if you multiply many values <1.0 together?
- In a sample of E.coli genes, CAI ranged from 0.2 to 0.85
- CAI correlates with mRNA levels: can be used to predict high expression levels

# Biological words: summary



- Simple 1-, 2- and 3-mer models can describe interesting properties of DNA sequences
  - GC skew can identify DNA replication origins
  - It can also reveal *genome rearrangement* events and *lateral transfer* of DNA
  - GC content can be used to locate genes: human genes are comparably GC-rich
  - CAI predicts high gene expression levels

# Biological words: summary



- $k=3$  models can help to identify correct *reading frames*
  - Reading frame starts from a start codon and stops in a stop codon
  - Consider what happens to translation when a single extra base is introduced in a reading frame
- Also word models for  $k > 3$  have their uses